



## LJMU Research Online

Wall, T, Ngo, N, Foster, S, Luong, P, Ho, T, Hindley, A and Stokes, P

**The spatialization of decent Work and the role of employability empowerment for minority ethnic young people in emerging economies**

<http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/id/eprint/22226/>

### Article

**Citation** (please note it is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from this work)

**Wall, T, Ngo, N, Foster, S, Luong, P, Ho, T, Hindley, A and Stokes, P The spatialization of decent Work and the role of employability empowerment for minority ethnic young people in emerging economies. PLoS One. ISSN 1932-6203 (Accepted)**

LJMU has developed **LJMU Research Online** for users to access the research output of the University more effectively. Copyright © and Moral Rights for the papers on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. Users may download and/or print one copy of any article(s) in LJMU Research Online to facilitate their private study or for non-commercial research. You may not engage in further distribution of the material or use it for any profit-making activities or any commercial gain.

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of the record. Please see the repository URL above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information please contact [researchonline@ljmu.ac.uk](mailto:researchonline@ljmu.ac.uk)

<http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/>

1       **The spatialization of decent work and the role of employability empowerment for**  
2                                   **minority ethnic young people in emerging economies**

3  
4   Tony Wall<sup>1</sup>, Ngo Thi Hang Nga<sup>2</sup>, Scott Foster<sup>1</sup>, Phuong Luong<sup>3</sup>, Thi Hanh Tien Ho<sup>2</sup>, Ann  
5   Hindley<sup>1</sup>, Peter Stokes<sup>4</sup>

6   <sup>1</sup> Liverpool Business School, Liverpool John Moores University, Liverpool

7   <sup>2</sup> Phu Xuan University, Hue, Vietnam

8   <sup>3</sup> Vietnam Japan University (Vietnam National University), Hanoi, Vietnam

9   <sup>4</sup> Leicester Castle Business School, De Montfort University, Leicester, UK

10  
11   \*Corresponding author: [t.wall@ljmu.ac.uk](mailto:t.wall@ljmu.ac.uk)

12  
13   Acknowledgements

14   The authors wish to recognize the contributions of the students and graduates involved in this  
15   study. In particular, we want to acknowledge the time and effort of our Youth Advisory Panel  
16   who have shaped, supported and promoted the wider project. We are also highly appreciative  
17   of the Project Advisory Committee which consisted of stakeholders across Vietnam and  
18   Australia. This study was funded by The British Academy through the “Empowering Ethnic  
19   Minority Youth in Vietnam to Re-Vision the Future of Decent Work” (“Re-WORK”) project,  
20   funded by the British Academy’s GCRF Youth Futures Programme [grant award number  
21   YF\190099].

22

## 23 **Abstract**

24 Global rises in precarious labour conditions have prompted further empirical work in Decent  
25 Work, a special category of employment characterised by equitable pay, treatment, and  
26 healthy working conditions. Despite this, research has tended to be conducted in developed  
27 countries with privileged groups such as those with typical working arrangements and rely on  
28 psychologically framed individual characteristics to explain marginalising factors. We  
29 propose a more sociologically framed, spatialised perspective on Decent Work which posits  
30 that marginalising factors are spatially variable and determined but moderated by  
31 employability empowerment. We measure our propositions across three spatially different  
32 sites of Vietnam through (1) a survey of minority ethnic students and graduates (N=1071)  
33 and (2) a survey of stakeholders involved in the recruitment and employment of this group  
34 (N=204). We find support for most of our propositions and call for more spatialised empirical  
35 work in the field of Decent Work.

36 **Keywords** Decent work, empowerment, minority ethnic young people

37

38

## 40 **Introduction**

41 While the empirical investigation of Decent Work has risen sharply in recent years its  
42 theorisation has not progressed beyond a psychological perspective (Duffy, Blustein, Allan,  
43 Diemer, and Cinamon 2020a). This is despite the utility of sociological theory in  
44 understanding the dynamics of labour markets and (mis)match of the supply and demand of  
45 labour, and when in the context of higher education, the sociocultural aspects of  
46 employability. To date, empirical work into employability and mobility has highlighted the  
47 interactional dimensions of macro factors (such as split labour markets and differential labour  
48 market outcomes), meso factors (such as the sociocultural structuration of occupations and  
49 the gendered and racialised practices of organisations), and micro factors (such as human  
50 capital development). Within the context of Decent Work, however, empirical work fails to  
51 embrace spatialised perspectives and so does not account for how mobility dynamics might  
52 operate differently across different locational and associated sociocultural places. This focus  
53 is arguably obfuscated by a narrow focus in empirical work on developed countries with  
54 privileged groups such as those with typical working arrangements and relies on  
55 psychologically framed individual characteristics to moderate marginalising factors  
56 (McWhirter and McWha-Hermann 2021).

57 In contrast to the extant literature, we examine Decent Work from a spatialised perspective,  
58 in the context of minority ethnic young people in an emerging economy. This is a group that,  
59 due to the massification of education and wider economic conditions, that is often under- or  
60 un- employed (Tomlinson 2021), but particularly so in the emerging economy of Vietnam  
61 (World Bank 2021a). This is a group who are evidenced to face some of the worst  
62 employment prospects in the world and are exposed to some of the most precarious work  
63 environments (such as the lowest paid work) partly due to racial discrimination (World Bank

64 2021a). Globally, 21.2% of young people are unemployed or not in education or training, but  
65 this figure reaches as high as 40% in some countries (UNDESA 2019).

66 We propose a broader conceptualisation of the psychologically framed individual  
67 characteristics which moderate marginalising factors, informed by different expressions of  
68 power (Pettit 2013; Rowlands 1997) across different levels of a sociocultural system  
69 (Bronfenbrenner 1999). As such, we introduce a more sociologically framed, spatialised  
70 perspective on Decent Work which posits that employability empowerment (an individual  
71 expressing different forms of power to change their employment circumstances) has a role in  
72 moderating these marginalising factors, and that these are spatially variable and determined.

73 This article is structured as follows. The first section highlights some of the ongoing issues  
74 and tensions in researching Decent Work. Following this, we propose an alternative  
75 perspective to Decent Work which foregrounds contextualisation, driven by an emerging  
76 spatialisation perspective, where locational factors and interpretations play a significant part  
77 in the mobility dynamics associated with Decent Work. Next, the methods of the study are  
78 discussed, outlining the two waves of the study. The results of the study are then discussed in  
79 relation to the extant literature to outline new contributions. After outlining the limitations,  
80 boundaries, and proposal for future research, the implications of a spatialised approach to  
81 Decent Work are outlined in relation to policy and educational institutions.

## 82 **Beyond Decent Work as a normative standard**

83 As an international labour standard, Decent Work attempts to provide normative criteria  
84 through which to raise global standards of work and employment protection. Empirical work,  
85 however, argues that the effectiveness of Decent Work as a normalising instrument continues  
86 to be problematic because of governance gaps including an overreliance on compliance in a  
87 market (Thomas and Turnbull 2018). As such, evidence highlights the complex sociocultural

88 challenge of attempting to change and sustain employment opportunities and labour standards  
89 across diverse cultural milieu including some of the most disadvantaged communities in the  
90 world.

91 In contrast to Decent Work's heritage in advocacy, recent empirical work into Decent Work  
92 has emerged from a psychological tradition, where a series of predictors have been examined  
93 and a scale has been validated across multiple countries (Duffy, Blustein, Allan, Diemer, and  
94 Cinamon 2020a). Here, Duffy and colleagues define Decent Work as possessing

95 (a) physical and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absent of physical,  
96 mental, or emotional abuse), (b) hours that allow for free time and adequate rest, (c)  
97 organizational values that complement family and social values, (d) adequate  
98 compensation, and (e) access to adequate health care (Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, and  
99 Autin 2016: 130).

100 Duffy and colleagues identify four direct predictors of Decent Work, with variable support  
101 across studies: economic constraints, marginalisation, work volition, and career adaptability  
102 (Duffy, Kim, Allan, and Prieto 2020a). These macro conditions include the economic status  
103 and constraints of individuals and their families, their social capital, as well as wider  
104 sociocultural marginalisation (Blustein, Perera, Diamonti, Gutowski, Meerkins, Davila and  
105 Konowitz 2020). Marginalising conditions include ethnicity, gender, immigrant status, as  
106 well as other minority statuses such as age and disability (Potter and Hamilton 2014;  
107 Kalleberg and Vallas 2017).

108 This psychological work, however, has tended to focus on the typical employment scenarios  
109 (e.g. paid work with a single employer) related to standard employment arrangements (e.g.  
110 full time) of adults in developed countries such as the United States (McWhirter and McWha-  
111 Hermann 2021). Despite the original conception of Decent Work being rooted in raising

112 international labour standards, there remains a “historical focus on higher-income settings  
113 and workers with relatively privileged status” (McWhirter and McWha-Hermann 2021: 1).  
114 The ambitions for political normalisation and the emergence of a unifying normative, de-  
115 contextualised theory about Decent Work remain controversial (Suttawet and Bamber 2018),  
116 because they both embrace the homogenous notion of decency across sub-localities, sectors,  
117 types of work, or tasks within that work (Saxena 2021) as well as situational or transitional  
118 circumstances such as displacement or refugee resettlement (Jiang 2021). At the same time,  
119 evidence suggests that the dynamics associated with economic conditions and marginalisation  
120 in emerging economies are different to developed economies; developing economies  
121 demonstrate economic and educational exclusion of ethnic minorities and women, and  
122 income inequality above average of all OECD countries (IPCC 2021). Moreover, the  
123 dynamics of emerging economies are disproportionately affected climate hazards and climate  
124 change, which cause increasingly destructive impacts on economic and health deprivation  
125 and inequalities (IPCC 2021).

126 Emerging economic contexts provide useful empirical sites because the economic growth of  
127 industrial sectors is particularly significant to mobility, especially due to the prospects of  
128 relative wage or career progression or to escape a precarious work condition (Feldman and  
129 Ng 2007). In such contexts, individual behaviour changes: when an economy is perceived to  
130 be in a state of growth there is generally a greater sense of predictability and optimism, and  
131 so people tend to seek new or better employment opportunities with a view to invest in the  
132 future (Sirola 2020). Conversely, when an economy is seen to be in retraction or harsher  
133 more generally, there is more unpredictability, so people adopt shorter time horizons (Sirola  
134 2020).

## 135 **Spatialised (exclusionary) dynamics of Decent Work**

136 The theoretical and empirical predictors of Decent Work implicitly reflect established  
137 literature that mobility, or the access and participation to jobs or occupations, is shaped by the  
138 interactions between macro features (such as the structure of job markets and macroeconomic  
139 expansion or turbulence) and micro features (such as individual preferences and resources),  
140 and their mediation through race and gender (DiPrete and Nonnemaker, 1997). This more  
141 established literature on mobility demonstrates a complex multitude of influences spanning  
142 structural (e.g. economic conditions), occupational (e.g. role expectations), organisational  
143 (e.g. cultural preferences), work group, personal life, and personality and personal style  
144 perspectives (Feldman and Ng, 2007). Together, such features can be seen to interact to shape  
145 the opportunity structures of jobs and individual preferences and decision making in line with  
146 social norms and the desirability of mobility (Feldman and Ng, 2007).

147 This proposition is also reflected the extant literature of mobility in the context of higher  
148 education, moving beyond the limitations of naïve matching of skills demand-supply,  
149 towards the spatially bounded institutional perspective. An institutionalist perspective  
150 positions employers as deeply contextualised within wider social fields and structures,  
151 influenced by exogenous factors in the wider labour market, comprising the social  
152 hierarchies, values, practices, and expectations, that are reflective of particular locations,  
153 occupations, sectors, and roles (Tomlinson 2021). This perspective asserts the highly socio-  
154 culturally specific nature of signals and their interpretation, which can represent the  
155 possibility of highly variable employer assessments of value, and employment outcomes,  
156 across locations, organisations, and sectors (Benbow and Hora 2018). As such, this socio-  
157 culturally complex isomorphic process involves employers interpreting partially symbolic



158 signals for dispositions and competencies (Midtboen 2015). Additional factors which  
159 highlight the peculiarities of context include:

160 *Location:* Employment opportunities are spatially distributed, that is, unevenly distributed  
161 across communities (Herod 2001; Massey, 1995). Place-sensitive models now provide more  
162 predictive strength to modelling youth labour market integration, because they take into  
163 account locational disparities of youth labour markets and complex interactions at the local  
164 level (Scandurra, Cefalo, and Kazepov, 2021). Empirical work now positions group biases  
165 and discrimination, developed through participation in education, community, and work, as a  
166 function of place (Sutton, Bosky, and Muller, 2016), and can be reflected in location and  
167 relocation to access work (Simelton, Duong, and Houzer, 2021).

168 *Demographics (Ethnicity, Gender, Age, intersectionality):* Labour market assimilation and  
169 split labour market theory explain how race/ethnicity introduces group-level hierarchies  
170 which amplify exclusionary processes of social closure and discrimination, negatively  
171 affecting the opportunities available for minority ethnic people (Restifo, Roscigno, and Qian  
172 2013; van Tubergen, Maas, and Flap 2004; Potter and Hamilton 2014) and penalties such as  
173 in lower wages (Zwysen, Di Stasio, and Heath 2021). In terms of gender, there is long-  
174 standing evidence base in relation to the way women are disproportionately represented in  
175 precarious employment, oppressive working conditions, and unequal terms of payment  
176 (Flores, Settles, McGillen, and Davis 2021). Age has also been found to moderate access to  
177 Decent Work, partly due to discrimination but also due to younger people being more  
178 susceptible to engage in more precarious work (Kalleberg 2018). When gender intersects  
179 with other characteristics such as age, race or disability, these disparities and inequalities  
180 become even more pronounced (Flores, Settles, McGillen, and Davis 2021).

181 *Subject majors:* The subject areas of education have signalling properties (Benbow and Hora  
182 2018; Lindberg and Rantatalo 2015), but that this signalling variably connects with the

183 occupational and organisational field in which it is expected to be applied, mediating the  
184 employment outcome differently across fields (Schull, King, Hamood, and Feakes 2021).  
185 *Type of employment / sources of income:* There are scarring and penalty effects from part-  
186 time work as well as unemployment and that this is mediated by localised perceptions of  
187 competence and commitment (Pedulla 2016). Similarly, evidence argues that the effects of  
188 unemployment extend over a lifetime but are spatially variable (Fervers 2021), and these are  
189 pronounced for minority ethnic workers (Brynin, Karim, and Zwysen 2019).  
190 *Institutional framework initiatives:* The above factors may also be influenced at national and  
191 provincial levels through different skills frameworks, empowerment initiatives, growth and  
192 productivity plans, support for entrepreneurship, and education policy (Metcalf, Makarem,  
193 and Afiouni 2020). However, evidence suggests that initiatives might accelerate employment  
194 integration (e.g. the achievement of a job) but can also promote the acceptance of job terms  
195 and conditions (such as wage) lesser than through other means (Fervers 2021).

## 196 **Employability empowerment across cultural milieu**

197 Whilst spatialised exclusionary factors seemingly shape employability outcomes and aspects  
198 of Decent Work, there is evidence which suggests that psychosocial resources can *navigate*  
199 the wider contextual parameters or material barriers to change one's own employment and  
200 life decisions (Duffy, Kim, Allan, and Prieto 2020b). These have been expressed variably as  
201 work volition and career adaptability (Blustein, Perera, Diamonti, Gutowski, Meerkins,  
202 Davila and Konowitz 2020), and in broader literature as a synonym for the behavioural  
203 tendencies for responding to changing labour market conditions across career stages  
204 (Thijssen, Van der Heijden, and Rocco 2008).

205 However, the literature also highlights young peoples' critical consciousness (McWhirter and  
206 McWhirter 2016; Masdonati, Massoudi, Blustein, and Duffy 2021) as a critical behaviour to

207 “perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the  
208 oppressive elements of reality” (Freire 2000: 36). As such, it can be understood as a socio-  
209 political capacity to liberate oneself from the oppressive conditions of structural group bias  
210 and has been demonstrated to shape younger peoples’ orientations towards work as well as  
211 their expectations of the sorts of occupations they expect to occupy later in life, thereby  
212 acting as an agentic *negotiation* of constraints (Diemer, Wang, Moore, Gregory, Hatcher and  
213 Voight 2010). Critical consciousness therefore moves from *navigating* to *negotiating* these  
214 sociocultural constraints, akin to notions of empowerment (Maiorano, Shrimankar, Thapar-  
215 Bjorkert, and Blomkvist 2021). This suggests:

216 *Hypothesised relationship 1: Spatialised exclusionary factors mediate the relationship*  
217 *between perceived employability empowerment and experience of Decent Work.*

218 Negotiating socio-cultural parameters moves from psychologically oriented, individual  
219 characteristics perspective, towards a sociocultural, ecosystemic perspective, which develops  
220 a more complex understanding of wider structural conditions in relation to employability and  
221 career development. This broader perspective considers the development and expression of  
222 power, in that it is contextualised in social settings, shapes mobility, and acts as a response to  
223 discrimination (Bhopal 2020). Here, the expression of empowerment moves beyond, but  
224 includes the narrow view of ‘*power over*’, where institutions and their instruments dominate  
225 or coerce its citizens to form new ways of thinking or acting, for example, to change their  
226 work, employment, or livelihood situation (Rowlands 1997). This is a typical view of power  
227 used to express how hegemonic institutions or elites mobilise their power, but there are other  
228 expressions often adopted in participatory policy development (Pettit 2013). Alternative  
229 expressions of power have been described as: *power-within* (a person having the self-  
230 awareness, self-esteem, and confidence to believe they can change a situation), *power-with* (a  
231 person being able to contribute to collective action to change a situation), and *power-to* (a

232 person being able to deliver effective action to learn how to change a situation) (VeneKlasen  
233 and Miller 2007). As such, the four expressions of empowerment provide a more holistic  
234 typology to describe how power is enacted.

235 In this broader conceptualisation, an ecosystemic perspective also delineates micro, meso,  
236 exo, and macro systems which influence access to, and participation in, circumstances which  
237 can affect human development (Bronfenbrenner and Ceci 1994): micro-systems refer to the  
238 activities, roles, and interpersonal relationships; the meso-system involves the linkages  
239 between two or more of these settings (e.g. family, education, and livelihood contexts); exo-  
240 systems refer to the wider events and policies which impact the conditions and resources  
241 within those family and education settings; and the macro-system refers to the wider cultural  
242 values, beliefs, and customs, and the broad cultural, political, social, and economic climate.

243 When empowerment is conceptualised in these ways in relation to employability,  
244 ‘employability empowerment’ is a socio-culturally embedded practice expressed across  
245 social settings which variously influence access and participation in Decent Work. From the  
246 extant literature discussed above, this includes the various capitals expressed through  
247 educational, family and community, and employment contexts.

248 *Hypothesised relationship 2: Spatialised exclusionary factors mediate the relationship*  
249 *between perceived employability empowerment and the expression of practices in*  
250 *different settings.*

251 In terms of educational settings, students and graduates are not just learning skills and  
252 knowledge but developing social capital to access and engage in opportunities relevant to  
253 local labour markets (Okay-Somerville, Allison, Luchinskaya, and Scholarios 2020).  
254 Educational institutions are also building and framing navigational and negotiational  
255 resources in relation to labour markets and lives. For example, research has found that the

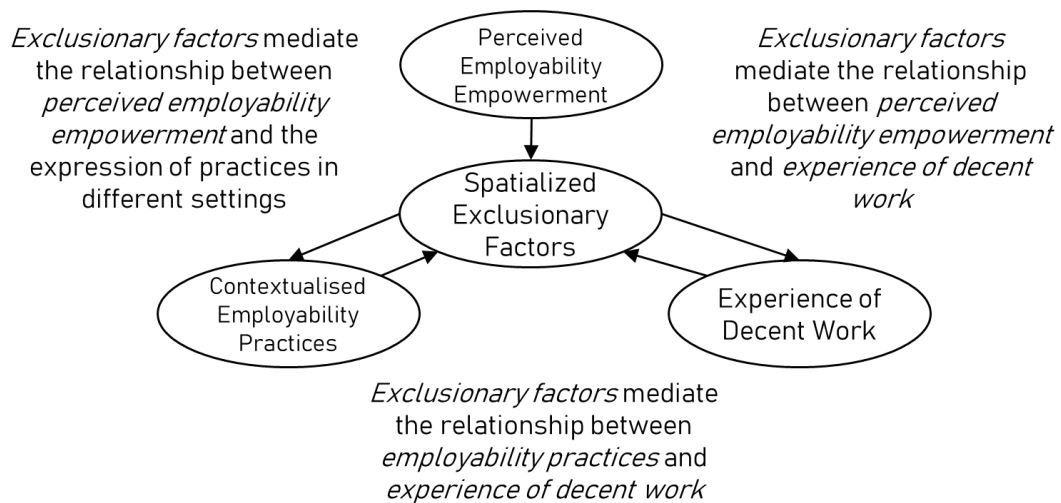
256 employment counselling and advice services provided only limited options to young people  
257 in low skilled opportunities and in line with gendered role expectations (Haikkola 2021).  
258 Students and graduates are also developing these resources in terms of family and community  
259 settings, framed by familial roles and expectations as well as highly localised community  
260 roles and expectations (Read and Oselin 2008). Similarly, in terms of employment, the ability  
261 to express empowerment practices in workplaces will reflect the possibilities afforded by  
262 localised cultural contexts and environments (Ray 2019). This includes, for example, hiring,  
263 role allocation, pay, reward and compensation, and structuring (Amis, Mair, and Munir  
264 2020).

265 *Hypothesised relationship 3: Spatialised exclusionary factors mediate the relationship*  
266 *between contextualised employability practices and experience of Decent Work.*

267 We conceptualise this broader concept as ‘employability empowerment’. There are two  
268 implications of this. First, it expands a view of navigational resources to include negotiational  
269 resources to broaden the person-driven focus to include different levels of the sociocultural  
270 system. It highlights the possibility that each of these levels have a role in shaping Decent  
271 Work outcomes. Second, it recognises that employability develops across contexts, where  
272 structural disadvantage shapes the development of resources such as social capital.  
273 Educational, community, and employment contexts are noteworthy as they frame the  
274 “structure of opportunity” which shapes “learning experiences and affects the translation of  
275 interests into career goals and outcomes” (McWhirter and McWha-Hermann 2021: 7). Such a  
276 perspective therefore extends the current myopia in the current psychological literature to the  
277 “the structure of opportunity, sociopolitical context, and social class” (McWhirter and  
278 McWha-Hermann 2021: 7).

279 In sum, the extant literature proposes hypothesised relationships between employability  
 280 empowerment and Decent Work, expressed through sociocultural contexts and mediated  
 281 through spatialised exclusionary factors. Specifically, we can hypothesise that spatialised  
 282 exclusionary factors mediate the expression of employability empowerment across different  
 283 settings, and that this expression is framed by and reflects local social structures. Given the  
 284 expression of this empowerment will be cast within local sociocultural schemas, it is  
 285 reasonable to assume such expressions will be shaped by the same exclusionary factors  
 286 outlined above. This proposal is summarised by the following broad hypotheses, and in the  
 287 figure below (Fig 1):

288  
 289 **Figure 1 - Primary relationships conceptualized in this study**



291

292

## 293 **Methods**

### 294 **Context of study: Vietnam as an emerging economy**

295 Vietnam has sustained its position as one of the fastest growing economies (World Bank  
296 2021a), catalysed by the “Doi Moi” economic reform policy of 1986. Vietnam has dropped  
297 down the Global Talent Competitiveness Index, where it is now ranked as 96<sup>th</sup> out of 132  
298 countries partly due to the relocation of relatively low/unskilled, low-wage manufacturing  
299 work from China (Lanvin and Monteiro 2020). The agricultural sector in Vietnam constitutes  
300 up to 25% of GDP, over 70% of employment (Maitah, Smutka, Sahatqija, Maitah, and  
301 Phuong Anh 2020), and 86% of Vietnam’s poorest people identify as one of Vietnam’s 54  
302 ethnic minority groups (World Bank 2021b). Ethnic minority households in Vietnam  
303 demonstrate “significantly higher rates of deprivation in all dimensions compared to their  
304 non-minority counterparts” (Pham, Mukhopadhaya, and Vu 2020: 161). Most minority ethnic  
305 people are employed in farming (75.1%), and a wage from a formal contract outside of  
306 farming is fairly uncommon (8.1%) (Demombynes and Testaverde 2018).

307 As well as some of the poorest communities, farming communities are often located in  
308 precarious environments prone to extreme climate events or gradual sea level rises (Le-Minh,  
309 Le Thi, Hai-Yen, and Hai-Binh 2020). Employment in tourism is increasing, but is highly  
310 seasonal, temporary, low-paid, and common in low-income households (Jeyacheya and  
311 Hampton 2020). Vietnam, like other fast-growing economies in Asia, has experienced high  
312 graduate unemployment as low as 27% in 2014 (Demombynes and Testaverde 2018). Earlier  
313 studies have indicated that 60% of graduates in Vietnam are unemployed or have insecure  
314 employment, with poor working conditions, job instability, low wages, and job informality  
315 being common issues for young people (Tran 2018; VietnamNet 2019).

## 316 **Two wave study**

317 This study involved two waves to examine the conceptualisation of the relationship between  
318 empowerment, expression of this in contexts, and experience of Decent Work (Fig 1). The  
319 first tested the operationalisation of the model in the hypothesised model perspective of  
320 minority ethnic minority young people aged 18-25 (proposed in Fig 2), and the second from  
321 the perspective of stakeholders experienced in the hiring or placement of minority ethnic  
322 young people in work (i.e. employers, university careers and placement staff, and  
323 policymakers). As such, the two waves provide a perspective triangulation strategy to  
324 strengthen the validity of the findings in relation to the target population.

## 325 **Instruments**

326 A survey instrument was derived from the literature outlined above, using a Likert scale  
327 ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). An English version was triple reverse  
328 translated between English and Vietnamese by three bilingual researchers before it was then  
329 piloted with 30 individuals across the target population. The instruments needed to be  
330 articulated in ways which were understandable to participants where literacy could not be  
331 guaranteed across all three study sites. Following the pilot, the surveys were revised for  
332 internal/construct validity. In addition to basing the survey items on previously validated  
333 constructs through the robust translation and piloting processes above, several reliability tests  
334 were employed; in the pilot, a Cronbach alpha of 0.900 was achieved, above the 0.7 threshold  
335 (Field 2018). For the minority ethnic young person's survey, 50 of the 70 items had a factor  
336 loading of  $>0.6$  and so were retained for further analyses. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient  
337 was 0.900 for all 50 variables, which indicates that the instrument had a good internal  
338 consistency. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha values for each construct were above this acceptable  
339 level (0.70): Employability Empowerment 0.934, Decent Work 0.823, and Contextualised



340 Employability Practices 0.712. For the stakeholder survey, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.977  
341 indicating good reliability (Field 2018). The Cronbach's alpha values for each construct were  
342 also above the acceptable level (0.70): Employability Empowerment 0.803, Decent Work  
343 0.795, and Contextualised Employability Practices 0.887.

344 The surveys were administered in three different sites of Vietnam, including North and South  
345 mountainous provinces as well as central urban conurbations. These sites covered a diversity  
346 of communities including farming and non-contracted employment conditions (in  
347 mountainous areas), as well as those less dependent on farming and more oriented towards  
348 waged and self-employment opportunities (urban areas). The surveys were administered face  
349 to face with the research team with support from minority ethnic research assistants who  
350 could speak local languages (other than Vietnamese). While Vietnamese was the dominant  
351 language at the three sites, having multi-lingual research assistants at each site meant that the  
352 research team could explain any nuances of the survey questions across multiple languages at  
353 each site if and when required. Evidence also indicates that this approach builds trust and  
354 therefore reliability of responses (Welch and Piekkari, 2006).” Participants were recruited  
355 and surveys administered between the 1<sup>st</sup> to the 30<sup>th</sup> June 2020. Informed consent was given  
356 in written and oral format. Ethical review and institutional permission were granted at a UK  
357 institution with input from Vietnamese researchers.

## 358 **Measurement**

359 First, data were analysed with descriptive statistics to summarise patterns (De Vaus 2014),  
360 and second, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was deployed to depict relationships  
361 among observed variables to provide a quantitative test of a theoretical model hypothesised  
362 from the extant literature (Zhang, Dawson, and Kline 2021). SEM enabled a complex model  
363 to be examined (Thakkar 2020), using SPSS AMOS Version 27 to specify, test, and modify

364 models. Before testing the statistical model, we conducted a succession of Exploratory Factor  
365 Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) procedures. EFA was primarily  
366 used for data reduction through the exploration of responses and CFA was primarily used for  
367 the confirmation and measurement theory (Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, and Gudergan  
368 2016). All factor loadings within the data set applied to the SEM were more than the  
369 recommended threshold of 0.50 (Costello and Osborne 2005).

370 A CFA was conducted to examine whether the primary concepts examined in this study (see  
371 Figs 1, 2 and 4) were distinct constructs (Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, and Gudergan 2016).  
372 To do this, we first examined a measurement model that included all measures. We then  
373 compared the measurement model to similar models that set the factors to correlate at 1.0 to  
374 keep the basic measurement model structure comparable, allowing for meaningful Chi-square  
375 difference tests. Furthermore, to test the measurement model, the CFA was conducted using  
376 the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method, which is the most widely used method for  
377 parameters estimation in SEM (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, and Müller 2003). To  
378 improve the measurement model goodness-of-fit, several modifications were introduced to  
379 the first-run model. In order to improve the model fit, we correlated parameter errors that are  
380 part of the same factor (Byrne 2016). Therefore, different parameter errors were correlated to  
381 improve the overall model fit. In addition, through experimentation, specific items were  
382 removed from the models (these are reported below).

383 SPSS AMOS version 27 generates 25 different goodness-of-fit measures and the choice of  
384 which to report is a matter of dispute among methodologists (Kline 2016). However, it is  
385 recommended to report Chi-squared statistics in addition to another absolute index such as  
386 RMSEA and an incremental index such as CFI, and when comparing models of varying  
387 complexity, it is recommended to add Parsimony-Adjusted Measures (PNFI) (Kline 2016).  
388 Despite there being no consensus towards which GFI reports to present, the following indices

389 should however, be reported when presenting model fit: 1) The model chi-square 2) RMSEA  
390 3) CFI and 4) SRMR (Kline 2016).

## 391 **Study 1: Survey of minority ethnic young people**

### 392 **Variables**

393 In study 1, the conceptualisation of the study (Fig 1) was operationalised with a set of  
394 hypotheses derived from the literature (Fig 2).

395 *Empowerment employability.* This construct was operationalised with different expressions of  
396 power (over, with, within, to) across a social system. Through translation and piloting  
397 processes, this final construct was represented through 15 items in Vietnamese (supported  
398 with immediate explanatory guidance to assure construct validity). Examples of the items in  
399 English translated to: “*I believe I can change and improve the way I earn a living or my*  
400 *employability*”, “*I use my networks to help improve how I earn a living or my*  
401 *employability*”, and “*I make links between different settings to help me improve how I earn a*  
402 *living or my employability*”.

403 *Exclusionary factors.* Exclusionary factors included: demographics in terms of age, gender,  
404 and ethnicity; location and relocation; job type in terms of work with contract, without  
405 contract (informal), and self-employment; subject major; student/graduation year; income  
406 sources (none, one, more than one); and policy initiatives (national and local vocational  
407 education, financially incentivised access to university, removal of examination requirements,  
408 and specialist boarding schools and foundation programs).

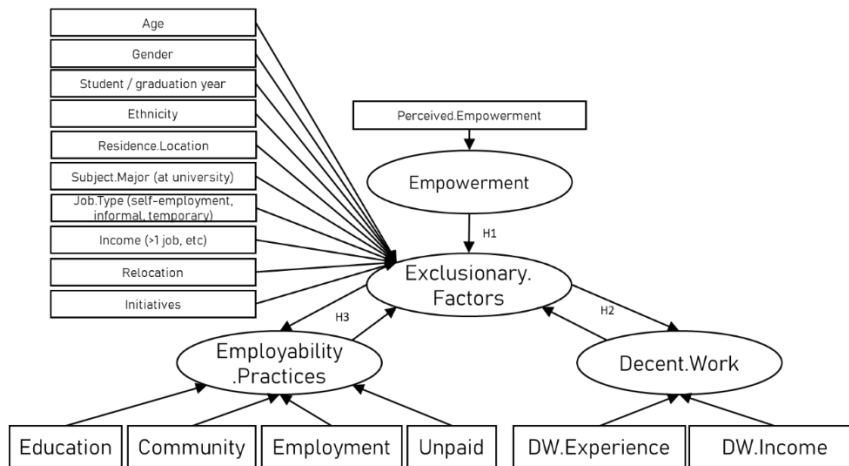
409 *Contextualised employability practices.* Three main contexts where students and graduates  
410 develop their employability were derived from the extant literature, namely education leading  
411 up to and including education, family as an embedded community setting, and through

412 employment. Items were derived from the employability empowerment items but  
413 contextualised with examples for that context. Through translation and piloting processes, the  
414 final construct was represented through 15 additional items in Vietnamese across the three  
415 contexts.

416 *Decent Work*. The main dimensions of decent work were derived from the original and  
417 psychological definitions. Through translation and piloting processes, this final construct was  
418 represented through 15 items in Vietnamese (supported with immediate explanatory guidance  
419 to assure construct validity). We adopted a more culturally derived understanding of Decent  
420 Work, which acknowledges that some concepts may not be locally meaningful. For example,  
421 the Decent Work item related to health care provision was removed as this is not found to be  
422 typical or meaningful in Vietnam and so did not make contextual sense to participants.  
423 Examples of the items in English translated to “*I work in a place(s) where... I can depend on*  
424 *my work for a regular income*”, “*...where I am free to express my concerns at work*”,  
425 “*...where there is equality of opportunity and treatment for all ethnicities*”, and “*...where*  
426 *the work is satisfying*”.

427

428 **Figure 2** – Hypothesized relationships in this study



429

430

### 431 **Sample**

432 Study 1 focused on minority ethnic young people aged 18-25 across (N=1071), summarised  
 433 in Tables 1 and 2. The sample was spread more or less evenly across ages 18-25 and genders,  
 434 and was comprised of 42 ethnic groups including populations smaller than 1000. Most  
 435 respondents were students, and a wide range of subject majors were represented in the study.  
 436 Most respondents reported no income from work and were currently unemployed (but had  
 437 experienced a form of work), or were in a form of permanent, temporary or informal  
 438 employment. In terms of geographies, most respondents were in the North Mountain centre  
 439 or the South centre, but there was representation from rural and urban areas surrounding the  
 440 three research sites (north, central and south). A probability sampling method was used given  
 441 the difficulty and sensitivity of reaching minority ethnic groups in Vietnam, an approach  
 442 which allowed for potentially everyone from the population an opportunity to be selected.  
 443 Here, the sampling process involved (1) selecting three sites which represented the three  
 444 population zones of urban, rural and mountainous areas where most minority ethnic groups  
 445 live and study (validated by Project Advisory Group which involved government officials  
 446 overseeing minority ethnic groups in Vietnam), (2) getting permission and validation from  
 447 the peoples' committee of minority ethnic groups across the three sites, (3) selecting

448 institutions from the three sites which are recognised by government and peoples' committees  
 449 to have some of the highest proportion of ethnic minorities) (4) inviting selective employers  
 450 who have businesses located at 3 sites and employ minority youth for surveys and interviews,  
 451 (5) sending the research information to the institution leaders to get their permissions, (6)  
 452 once the institutions approved, the research information was sent to the students and  
 453 graduates by the institutions for participant recruitment on the voluntary basis, and then (7)  
 454 the research team and multi-lingual research assistants visited the sites and conducted the  
 455 interviews ensuring that the participants met the inclusion criteria (that they are current or  
 456 recent student (as above), had experienced a form of formal or informal work, and identify  
 457 other than the Kinh group)..

458

459 **Table 1** Description of sample (I): age, gender, location, income and type of work

Age	Frequency	%
18	106	10%
19	144	13%
20	164	15%
21	176	16%
22	161	15%
23	104	10%
24	77	7%
25	139	13%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Gender	Frequency	%
Women	613	57%
Men	458	43%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Location	Frequency	%
North mountain center	559	52.2%
South center	270	25.2%
South mountain area	132	12.3%
North center	108	10.1%
Abroad	2	0.2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Home and work location over the last 7 years	Frequency	%
Different	833	77.8%
Same	238	22.2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Income	Frequency	%
No income from work	725	67.7%
Income from one source of work	313	29.2%
Income from 2-3 sources of work	29	2.7%
Income from more than 4 sources of work	4	0.4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Type of work	Frequency	%
Currently unemployed (but had experienced work)	488	45.6%
Employed with permanent contract	294	27.5%
Employed with temporary contract	124	11.6%
Informal work (without contract)	98	9.2%
Self-employed	67	6.3%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

460

461

462

463

464  
465  
466

**Table 2** Description of sample (II): ethnicity, student/graduate status, major, and education type

<b>Ethnic group</b>	Frequency	%
Thai	204	19.0%
Hmong	152	14.2%
Tay	111	10.4%
Co Tu	85	7.9%
Kinh (Mixed/Other)	64	6.0%
Nung	61	5.7%
Dao	48	4.5%
Muong	48	4.5%
Pa co	44	4.1%
E de	43	4.0%
Giay	32	3.0%
Gia rai	23	2.1%
Ta oi	18	1.7%
Ha Nhi	13	1.2%
Ka dong	13	1.2%
Cham	13	1.2%
Giay	10	0.9%
Bru-Van Kieu	9	0.8%
Kor	9	0.8%
San Diu	8	0.7%
Ma	8	0.7%
Others*	7	0.7%
Ko ho	7	0.7%
Ta Rieng	6	0.6%
Han	6	0.6%
Cao Lan	4	0.4%
Xe dang	3	0.3%
Chu ru	3	0.3%
Tho	3	0.3%
Bana	2	0.2%
Kho mu	2	0.2%
Xa Pho	2	0.2%
Xa pho	2	0.2%
Ma	2	0.2%
La Chi	1	0.1%
Hre	1	0.1%
Pa di	1	0.1%
Sila	1	0.1%
Xo dra	1	0.1%
Lao	1	0.1%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

<b>Student status</b>	Frequency	%
1st year student	109	10.2%
2nd year student	199	18.6%
3rd year student	206	19.2%
4th year student	163	15.2%
5th year student	10	0.9%
6th year student	22	2.1%
Graduate	362	33.8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

<b>Major</b>	Frequency	%
Others	562	52.5%
Education	193	18.0%
Economics	160	14.9%
Agriculture	91	8.5%
Engineering	47	4.4%
Business	18	1.7%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

<b>Training type</b>	Frequency	%
University	681	63.6%
Vocational college	290	27.1%
Lower Vocational College	100	9.3%
<b>Total</b>	<b>1071</b>	<b>100.0</b>

467  
468  
469

\* Pu peo, Lu, Lo lo, La Hu, Bo Y - these groups have a very small number of population (under 1000)

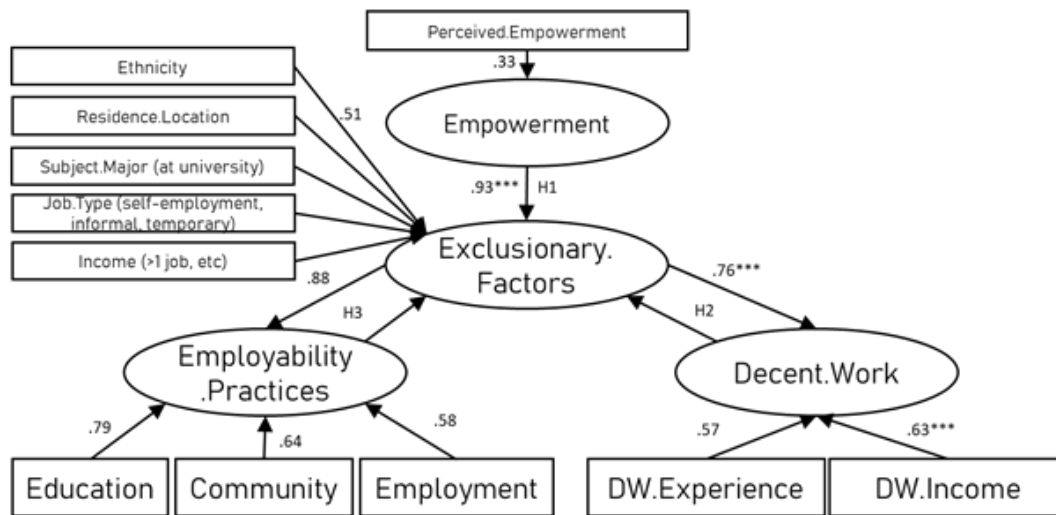
470

471

472 **Study 1 Results**

473 The EFA identified 8 factors which explained 71.59% of the variance. The model was refined  
 474 through an iterative process to identify the strongest goodness-of-fit model (Fig 3). In line with  
 475 the GFI reporting conducted by Kline (2016) the model fit data showed that our hypothesised  
 476 measurement model fits the data very well,  $\chi^2(201, N=1071) = 468.11, p < 0.000, CFI = 0.951,$   
 477  $IFI = 0.943, RMSEA = 0.05$  and  $SRMR = 0.07$ . A variety of items were removed from the  
 478 model to enhance goodness-of-fit, in terms of (1) exclusionary factors: age, student/graduate  
 479 status, gender, relocation, and policy initiatives, and (2) in terms of contextualised  
 480 employability practices, the item “*To find unpaid work experience*” in Education and  
 481 Community, and Employment settings were removed and the item “*To learn new technology*  
 482 *skills*” were removed from Community and Employment settings. Analyses are presented in  
 483 Tables 3 and 4.

484 **Figure 3** – Minority ethnic young person perspective (model with GFI, CFI, 0.951)



485  
 486  
 487  
 488



489

490 **Table 3** presents the means, standard deviations, correlations and coefficient alphas ( $\alpha$ )  
 491 among the study variables. As shown in Table 4, all hypothesized pairs of relationships were  
 492 statistically significant.

Means, Standard deviation, reliabilities and intercorrelations among study variables							
Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1) Employability Factors	3.07	0.79	-0.83				
2) Decent Work	3.39	0.65	0.84**	0.88			
3) Exclusionary Factors	4.38	0.87	0.50**	0.65**	-0.73		
4) Empowerment	4.36	0.82	0.71**	0.72**	0.66**	-0.81	
5) Demographic	4.36	0.79	0.50**	0.36**	0.36**	0.54**	-0.81

493 *N* = 1071. Coefficient alphas are listed in parentheses along the diagonal \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01 (2-tailed)

494

495 **Table 4** shows the overall results of the multiple regression analysis for collapsed variables.  
 496 VIF and Tolerance values shown in the output tables suggest that there is no multicollinearity  
 497 issue. The final model achieved where all the predictor variables were significant I.e. *p* < .05.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)	-822	2.56	-3.215	0.001		
	Employability Factors	319	0.67	4.773	0.000	0.59	1.695
	Decent Work	297	0.46	6.482	0.000	0.962	1.039
	Exclusionary Factors	160	0.74	2.174	0.03	0.645	1.551
	Empowerment	250	0.79	3.153	0.002	0.687	1.456

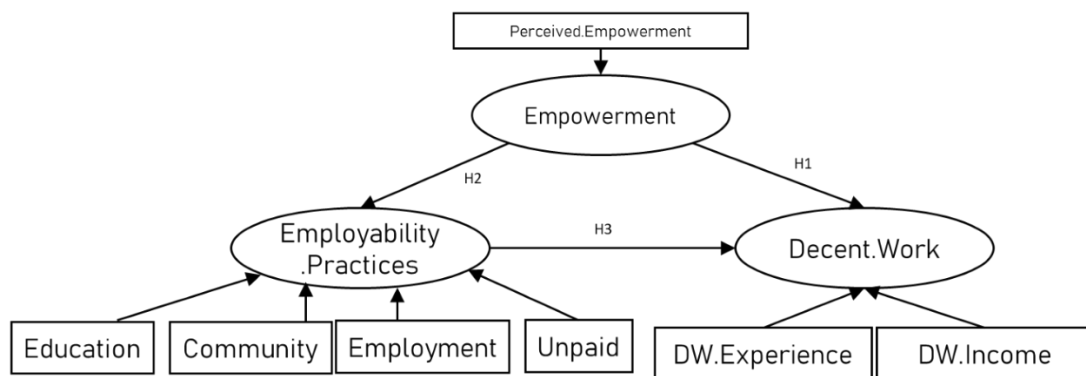
498

499 **Study 2: Survey of stakeholders**

500 **Variables**

501 Study 2 focused on the stakeholder perceptions of minority ethnic young people in terms of  
502 empowerment and the expression of their employability as defined in Survey 1. This includes  
503 policymakers, employers, and careers professionals involved in the recruitment and  
504 employment of minority ethnic young people. Employability empowerment, contextualised  
505 employability practices across three main contexts, and Decent Work were defined and  
506 operationalised as described in Study 1 but were worded from the perspective of stakeholders  
507 with reference to minority ethnic young people aged 18-25 (Fig 4).

508 **Figure 4** – Hypothesized relationships from stakeholders’ perspectives.



509  
510

511

512 **Sample**

513 Study 2 examined the perception of stakeholders who work closely with minority ethnic  
514 young people in the three locations of the overall study (N = 204). The sample is summarised  
515 in Table 5. Most respondents were the dominant ethnic group, and most were in northern  
516 provinces (e.g. Hanoi 24.5%) or central provinces (e.g. Hue 16.7%). This distribution reflects

517 the distribution of institutional policy makers and employers and their representatives in the  
 518 north and centre of Vietnam.

519

520 **Table 5** Description of stakeholder sample: ethnicity and location

Ethnic group	Frequency	Percent	Location	Frequency	Percent
Kinh	136	66.7%	Hanoi	50	24.5%
Tay	10	4.9%	Hue	34	16.7%
Co Tu	9	4.4%	Son La	26	12.7%
Undisclosed	6	2.9%	Quang Nam	26	12.7%
Muong	6	2.9%	Lai Chau	16	7.8%
Mong	5	2.5%	Lao Cai	16	7.8%
Thai	5	2.5%	Thai Nguyen	9	4.4%
E De	5	2.5%	Bac Kan	9	4.4%
Nung	4	2.0%	Khong	5	2.5%
Pa Co	4	2.0%	Daklak	5	2.5%
Ta Oi	3	1.5%	Vinh Phuc	2	1.0%
Mnong	2	1.0%	Phu Tho	1	0.5%
Bru Van Kieu	2	1.0%	Dien Bien	1	0.5%
San Diu	1	0.5%	Quang Tri	1	0.5%
Ha Nhi	1	0.5%	Hoa Binh	1	0.5%
Hoa	1	0.5%	Thanh Hoa	1	0.5%
Gia Trieng	1	0.5%	Tay Nguyen	1	0.5%
Xieng	1	0.5%	Total	204	100
Dao	1	0.5%			
Pahy	1	0.5%			
Total	204	100			

521

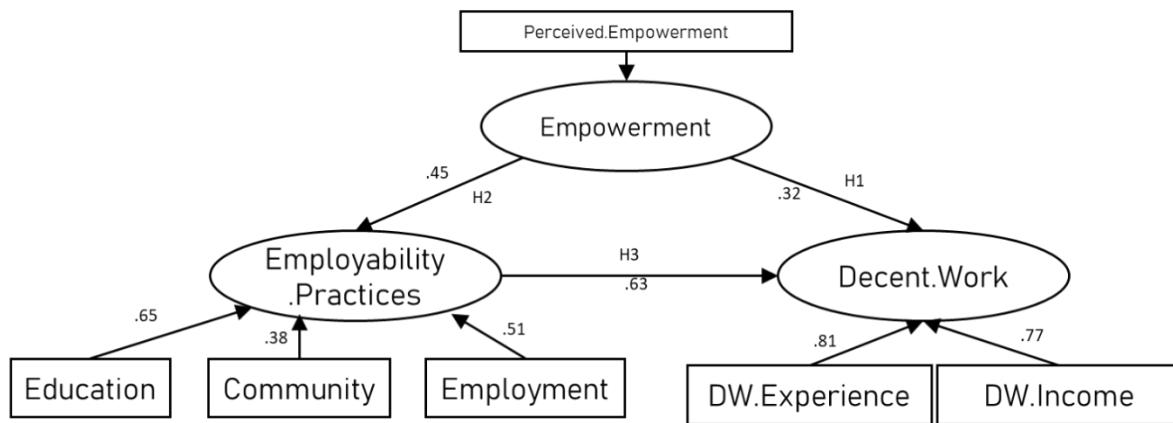
522

## 523 **Study 2 Results**

524 The EFA identified 15 factors which explained 73.12% of the variance. The model was refined  
 525 through an iterative process to identify the strongest goodness-of-fit model (Fig 5). In line with  
 526 the GFI reporting conducted by Kline (2016) the model fit data showed that our hypothesised  
 527 measurement model fits the data well,  $\chi^2$  (348, N=204) = 1082.00,  $p < 0.000$ , CFI = 0.918, IFI  
 528 = 0.943, RMSEA = 0.056 and SRMR = 0.061. Three items related to minority ethnic young  
 529 people seeking or taking unpaid work opportunities in the three settings were removed from  
 530 the model to enhance model goodness-of-fit. Analyses are presented in Tables 6 and 7.

531

532 **Figure 5** – Stakeholder perspective on role of empowerment (model with GFI, CFI - .0.918)



533

534

535 **Table 6** presents the means, standard deviations, correlations and coefficient alphas ( $\alpha$ )  
 536 among the study variables from the stakeholders perspective.

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Empowerment	3.42	0.72	0.72**	0.73**		
2 Decent Work	3.41	0.8	0.50**	0.37**	0.36**	
3. Employability Factors	4.38	1	0.64**	0.65**	-0.32	-0.81

537 *N* = 204. Coefficient alphas are listed in parentheses along the diagonal \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01 (2-tailed)

538

539 **Table 7** Coefficient analysis presents the overall results of the multiple regression analysis  
 540 for collapsed variables. VIF and Tolerance values shown in the output tables suggest that  
 541 there is no multicollinearity issue.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-1232	0.213		-5.795	0.000		
Empowerment	184	0.67	165	2.745	0.006	0.328	3.045
Decent	326	0.48	245	6.803	0.000	0.91	1.099
Employability Factors	469	0.59	328	7.878	0.003	0.684	1.461

542

543

## 544 Discussion

545 This study directly responds to calls to redress imbalances in the study Decent Work,  
 546 providing alternatives to studies focused on the psychology of individuals in developed  
 547 countries who work in typical work arrangements. Drawing from sociological perspectives,  
 548 this research hypothesised the mediating role between spatialised exclusionary factors and

549 (H1) the relationship between perceived employability empowerment and experience of  
550 Decent Work, (H2) the relationship between perceived employability empowerment and the  
551 expression of practices in different settings, and (H3) the relationship between contextualised  
552 employability practices and experience of Decent Work. Our analysis finds support for these  
553 relationships, from the perspective of minority ethnic young people and the stakeholders  
554 involved in their recruitment and employment. These findings, in part, echo the extant  
555 literature in terms of the possibility of psychosocial resources to navigate the wider economic  
556 labour market forces which predict Decent Work (Duffy, Kim, Allan, and Prieto 2020b). This  
557 study extends those findings through the notion of employability empowerment which  
558 integrate broader, sociocultural resources that are potentially negotiational in the sense they  
559 embody abilities to change circumstances (Bronfenbrenner and Ceci 1994; Pettit 2013;  
560 Rowlands 1997). This broader conceptualisation offers an alternative perspective to how  
561 people, including those who typically possess relatively limited resources such as young  
562 ethnic minority students and graduates, can mediate, that is, change or improve, their  
563 livelihood circumstances. This finding also sits in contrast to the predominant literature  
564 Decent Work to argue that navigational and negotiational resources do not just mediate  
565 experiences of Decent Work, but are, themselves, entangled in localised sociocultural  
566 schemas.

567 This study extends existing evidence to suggest that ethnicity remains a predictive  
568 marginalising factor in accessing Decent Work even when factoring in a broader concept of  
569 employability empowerment. This finding expands the role of critical consciousness in  
570 education beyond skills acquisition and generation (Carey, Akiva, Abdellatif, and Daughtry  
571 2020), but also provides empirical evidence as to its boundary constraints in sociocultural  
572 settings. Moreover, the predictive value of ethnicity is strongest when intersecting with  
573 location and other variables which would be interpreted spatially in local labour markets,

574 namely, educational subject major, form of employment and sources of income. According to  
575 the findings of this study, then, the effects of ethnicity are composite and at least in part,  
576 spatial, reflecting local sociocultural contexts, and shaping the ways in which employability  
577 empowerment is expressed across settings to influence experiences of Decent Work.

578 Such a perspective amplifies the possibility of more deeply contextualised research into  
579 Decent Work and the potential of more nuanced perspectives across sociocultural landscapes.

580 While there may be an emerging departure from the dominant normative approach to  
581 examining Decent Work through the unification of individual psychological instruments  
582 (Saxena 2021; Suttawet and Bamber 2018), a spatialised approach suggests that  
583 marginalising factors may not just manifest differently across countries but may manifest  
584 differently across geographic or spatial areas which have different sociocultural  
585 characteristics such as industries or access to infrastructural services. This aligns with the  
586 notion of sociocultural schemas as a function of place (Sutton, Bosky, and Muller 2016),  
587 which helps to explain spatial differences in marginalisation across a single country.

588 However, in contrast to the extant literature, there were spatialised exclusionary factors and  
589 items related to the expression of empowerment through contextualised employability  
590 practices which reduced the predictive value of the models examined. In terms of spatialised  
591 exclusionary factors, four items reduced the relative predictive value of the models examined:  
592 gender, age, student / graduate status, relocation, and policy initiatives. Gender is perhaps the  
593 most surprising of these items, given the relatively long-standing and strong evidence base of  
594 gender discrimination in workplaces (Kossek, Perrigino, and Rock 2021), its predictive role  
595 as a marginalising factor in Decent Work (Duffy, Kim, Allan, and Prieto 2020b), and its  
596 spatialised variation in the effects it creates across locations and organisations (Sutton,  
597 Bosky, and Muller 2016). There is some emerging evidence which identifies scenarios where  
598 there are no statistically significant differences between women and men in terms of job

599 satisfaction and work-life balance, for example, the case of highly educated, trained, and  
600 experienced physicians in China (Liu, Wu, Jiang, Wang, Liu, and Tang 2021).

601 Sociologically, one explanation of why gender may not be as predictive as expected could  
602 relate to the way intersectional identities aggregate to create differential effects on  
603 discrimination and associated employment outcomes. Exclusionary factors such as gender  
604 and ethnicity (as well as age) can lead to additional effects (“additive”), multiplicative effects  
605 where the addition of categories amplify negative effects (“amplified congruence”) or have  
606 no additional effects because of perceived similarity (“muted congruence”) (Birkelund,  
607 Heggebo, and Rogstad 2017).

608 The findings of this study suggest that the addition of gender to ethnicity as a predictor of  
609 Decent Work – when factoring in the role of employability empowerment for this population  
610 and in an emerging economy with graduate oversupply – may therefore display a muted  
611 congruence effect. In other words, with a sense of empowerment (or lack thereof), ethnicity is  
612 sufficient to predict experience of Decent Work because of a perceived congruence to gender  
613 in discriminative processes (Pedulla 2018). This reflects other research into deprivation in  
614 Vietnam where location was a greater predictor of all forms of deprivation (Pham,  
615 Mukhopadhaya, and Vu 2020) and where gender discrimination is less prominent in some  
616 rural areas relative to urban areas (Dao Dinh, Zhang, and Trang Huyen 2021). This  
617 discussion could also be recited in relation to explaining why age decreased the predictive  
618 utility of the model (Kalleberg 2018). However, the study sample is limited to students and  
619 graduates aged 18-25 which might explain its relatively limited impact in the model  
620 examined.

621 It is possible that the respective role of ethnicity might be pronounced in the research context  
622 of this study given the high diversity of minority ethnic groups (there are 54 recognised

623 ethnic groups in Vietnam) (Le-Minh, Le Thi, Hai-Yen, and Hai-Binh 2020). Though it is  
624 important to recognise that this study measured the effects of a spatialised notion of ethnicity,  
625 that is ethnicity is measured alongside location. Research has already indicated that the  
626 visibility and institutional or group-level recognition of ethnic groups in sociocultural and  
627 geographic locations can vary considerably (Restifo, Roscigno and Qian 2013). More  
628 recently, however, evidence into discrimination in multi-ethnic communities has indicated  
629 that inter-group contact and institutional arrangements for minority groups at the local level  
630 can influence the extent and nature of racial discrimination (Bessudnov and Shcherbak 2020).  
631 As our study included mountainous areas which are historically and typically characterised  
632 by ethnic minority groups (Le-Minh, Le Thi, Hai-Yen, and Hai-Binh 2020) as well as urban  
633 areas where discrimination has been evidenced to be more common (Dao Dinh, Zhang, and  
634 Trang Huyen 2021), we believe our results provide a representative picture of spatialised  
635 factors. This means we believe that the geographic diversity of our sample provides strong  
636 empirical justification for a spatialised notion of ethnicity and how it can shape Decent Work.  
637 At the same time, as our research utilised subjective measures related to Decent Work (e.g.  
638 self-reports of income fairness rather than absolute income levels), it is also possible that the  
639 model is masking differential expectations between gender identifications. There is now a  
640 long-standing evidence base that societal and occupational norms shape the self-efficacy  
641 beliefs, familial and work role expectations, and employment expectations of women  
642 including from Vietnam (Dao Dinh, Zhang, and Trang Huyen 2021). Here, such subjective  
643 beliefs and expectations frame and shape responses from a marginalised or disadvantaged  
644 position (relative to a majority group), thereby making it more difficult to ascertain absolute  
645 comparisons. Recent empirical work has highlighted this phenomenon with workers engaged  
646 in precarious work environments, where they were observed expressing an appreciative  
647 disposition towards their precarious circumstances rather than a critical evaluation of



648 conditions that would otherwise be described as abhorrent (Campbell, Tranfaglia, Tham, and  
649 Boese 2019).

650 This research posited that employability empowerment is expressed through contextualised  
651 employability practices in education (Metcalf, Makarem, and Afiouni 2020), community  
652 (Khan 2021), and employment (Ray 2019), which then shapes engagement with Decent  
653 Work. Whilst this reflects prior empirical work, there were two main items that were  
654 excluded from the model. The first relates to the utilisation of those contexts to find unpaid  
655 work, which when included in the model weakened the predictive value of the models in both  
656 studies (i.e. from both the minority ethnic student and graduate and the stakeholders involved  
657 in their recruitment and employment). This might reflect the awareness, perceived relative  
658 attractiveness, and uptake of unpaid work opportunities available through those settings.

659 Evidence suggests that ‘not-for-credit’ opportunities associated with enhancing employability  
660 such as business start-up or volunteering can be perceived as some of the least valuable in  
661 terms of developing new skills, experience, networks, and employment (Jackson and  
662 Bridgstock 2021). However, paradoxically, the relative role of engaging in unpaid work  
663 might also be an indicator of a greater sense of employability empowerment. Here, research  
664 has found that when students and graduates have a greater sense of self-efficacy, control, and  
665 perceived employability, it can reduce their proactive behaviours such as career planning and  
666 development (Jackson and Tomlinson 2020).

667 The second item excluded from the model related to the utilisation of community and  
668 employment contexts to “learn new technology skills” (the same item in the education  
669 context did not meet factor loading criteria for inclusion through model measurement  
670 procedures). This might reflect two separate phenomena. The first is that technology is so  
671 pervasive to the sample group (i.e. ethnic minority students and graduates aged 18-25) that it  
672 is no longer perceptible as ‘new technology’ and rather a habituated practice that is not

673 reified as a categorically different code. The second, conversely, is that the sample may  
674 perceive they do not have access to new technology across settings or are not aware of the  
675 possible importance to employment outcomes. Given the relatively low levels of engagement  
676 with technology and technology skills development across education, community, and  
677 employment, especially in rural areas (World Bank 2021b), we are more convinced by the  
678 second explanation. According to the model measured in this study, there are relatively more  
679 useful factors that predict Decent Work for the sample population, including employability  
680 empowerment, the expression of this across settings, and the mediating effects of location,  
681 ethnicity, subject major, job type, and sources of income.

## 682 **Limitations, boundaries, and future research**

683 The conceptual boundaries of this study were derived from empirical work conducted in  
684 developed countries in typical employment contexts, but this research is contextualised  
685 within one of the fastest growing, emerging economies in the world and with some of the  
686 most detrimentally impacted by precarious work. It was conducted during a global pandemic  
687 which might reasonably shape the responses offered by participants (although Vietnam was  
688 not in lockdown during the data collection period). For example, the threat of lockdown  
689 might have accentuated the familial or community context over employment contexts or  
690 undermined and therefore underestimated the sense of employability empowerment due to a  
691 diminished sense of control compared to pre-pandemic times (Sirola 2020). Despite the  
692 context in which the data was collected, the hypothesised model retained a statistically good  
693 fit. It is possible that this study is temporally located, for example, in terms of levels of  
694 graduate oversupply (McGuinness, Kelly, Thu, Thu, and Whelan 2021), and further time-  
695 series studies across time or across life spans could build the generalisability of the findings.

696 Unlike the psychological study of Decent Work, this study has introduced a more  
697 sociologically oriented notion of employability empowerment which is mediated by the  
698 spatialised exclusionary factors of specific locations. Employability empowerment, as  
699 navigational and negotiational in character, is not an individual characteristic which is more  
700 or less stable, and so is likely to be variable across spatialised settings and time. The levels of  
701 discrimination will differ across these settings, partly determined by the level and historical  
702 context of inter-group contact and the institutional recognition and status given to minority  
703 ethnic communities at the local level (Bessudnov and Shcherbak 2020). Similarly, it is  
704 important to recognise the population for this study has been ethnic minority students and  
705 graduates aged 18-25, and results should be bounded respectively. With this sample, age or  
706 student/graduate status were not significant mediating factors in our model, but future  
707 research should examine the spatialisation of Decent Work with a wider age range. It is  
708 reasonable to assume that across spatialised settings and life spans, ethnicity, gender, and age,  
709 may variously interact and create differential effects, from muted congruence, additive, or  
710 multiplicative effects (Birkelund, Heggebo, and Rogstad 2017). Therefore, undertaking  
711 further large-scale studies across other countries with different sociocultural geographies and  
712 demographics might generate further insights into how employability empowerment interacts  
713 with the exclusionary factors in relation to Decent Work, especially as societies age.

## 714 **Implications**

715 A spatialised approach to Decent Work which recognises the role of employment  
716 empowerment implicates institutions operating across education, community, and  
717 employment settings. It is one which is sensitive to the possibility that initiatives may well  
718 accelerate employment integration (e.g. the achievement of a job), but that such initiatives  
719 can also promote the acceptance of job terms and conditions (such as wage) lesser than they

720 would have been through other means (Fervers 2021). For education, our research challenges  
721 generalised or ‘whole institution’ approach to employability skills matrices and demands a  
722 more sophisticated sensitivity to localised labour markets (Metcalf, Makarem, and Afionni  
723 2020). It is likely that this will reflect the positioning of educational institutions, such as  
724 locally, regionally, nationally, or internationally oriented universities and their respective  
725 target labour markets. Such sensitivities are likely to include a range of interventions to  
726 reflect the specific needs of locations, subject areas, and ethnic groups (Tomlinson 2021).  
727 According to the model presented here and recent research which indicates how students and  
728 graduates perceive ‘for-credit’ opportunities (Jackson and Tomlinson 2021), the integration  
729 of vocational and work-based ‘for-credit’ opportunities as part of courses, and which are  
730 connected to workplaces, are particularly promising if they focus on dimensions of  
731 employability empowerment.

732 Governmental policy frameworks and initiatives would benefit from the same locational  
733 principles in encouraging Decent Work. The policy initiatives examined through this study  
734 have created employment outcomes for ethnic minority groups (World Bank 2021b), but they  
735 did not provide predictive utility in relation to Decent Work. This may be related to  
736 Vietnam’s emerging, quasi-decentralised governance framework and the resulting variability  
737 of implementation at the local level (Van Vu, Tran, Van Nguyen, and Lim 2018). National  
738 level coordination of localised priorities and action plans could provide a strong platform for  
739 the realisation of Decent Work across provinces, as young people do move to find work.  
740 Policy might incentivise the development of employment empowerment for minority ethnic  
741 students and graduates, such as the subsidisation of targeted upskilling opportunities through  
742 community organisations and employers which focus on developing the dimensions of  
743 employment empowerment in particular vocational fields. This echoes other policy  
744 approaches internationally, for example the tax levy introduced to encourage UK employers

745 to upskill their workforces through apprenticeships in priority areas but builds on this with  
746 specific nuance. Given the dynamic nature of labour markets over time, such implications  
747 would provide a stronger platform to better enable minority ethnic young people to engage in  
748 Decent Work across geographic locations.

749

750

## 751 **References**

752 Amis JM, Mair J, Munir KA. The organizational reproduction of inequality. *Acad Manag*  
753 *Ann.* 2020; 14(1): 195-230.

754 Assaad R, Krafft C. Excluded generation: the growing challenges of labor market insertion  
755 for Egyptian youth. *J Youth Stud.* 2021; 24(2): 186-212.

756 Benbow RJ, Hora MT. Reconsidering College Student Employability: A Cultural Analysis of  
757 Educator and Employer Conceptions of Workplace Skills. *Harvard Educ Rev.* 2018;  
758 88(4): 483-515.

759 Bessudnov A, Shcherbak A. Ethnic Discrimination in Multi-ethnic Societies: Evidence from  
760 Russia. *Eur Sociol Rev* 2020; 36(1): 104-120.

761 Bhopal K. Confronting White privilege: the importance of intersectionality in the sociology  
762 of education. *Brit J Sociol Educ.* 2020; 41(6): 807-816.

763 Birkelund GE, Heggebo K, Rogstad J. Additive or Multiplicative Disadvantage? The  
764 Scarring Effects of Unemployment for Ethnic Minorities. *Eur Sociol Rev.* 2017;  
765 33(1): 17-29.

766 Blustein DL, Perera HN, Diamonti AJ, Gutowski E, Meerkins T, Davila A, Erby W,  
767 Konowitz L. The uncertain state of work in the US: Profiles of decent work and  
768 precarious work. *J Vocat Behav.* 2020; 122(103481). doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103481.

769 Bronfenbrenner U. Environments in developmental perspective: Theoretical and operational  
770 models. pp. 3-28 in *Measuring environment across the life span: Emerging methods*  
771 *and concepts* edited by S. L. Friedman and T. D. Wachs. Washington DC: American  
772 Psychological Association. 1999.

773 Bronfenbrenner U, Ceci SJ. Nature-Nurture Reconceptualized in Developmental Perspective:  
774 A Bioecological Model. *Psychol Rev.* 1994; 101(4): 568-586.

775 Brynin M, Karim MS, Zwysen W. The Value of Self-Employment to Ethnic Minorities.  
776 *Work Employ Soc.* 2019; 33(5): 846-864.

777 Byrne BM. *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and*  
778 *Programming.* New York: Routledge. 2016.

779 Campbell I, Tranfaglia MA, Tham J-C, Boese M. Precarious work and the reluctance to  
780 complain: Italian temporary migrant workers in Australia. *Lab Ind.* 2019; 29(1): 98-  
781 117.

782 Carey RL, Akiva T, Abdellatif H, Daughtry KA. 'And school won't teach me that!' Urban  
783 youth activism programs as transformative sites for critical adolescent learning. *J*  
784 *Youth Stud.* 2020; 24(7): 941-960.

785 Chau Q, Dang BL, Nguyen XA. Patterns of Ownership and Management in Vietnam's  
786 Private Higher Education: An Exploratory Study. *High Educ Policy.* 2020; 35: 155-  
787 177.

788 Cooke FL, Bartram T. Decent work and industrial relations in Asia: progress, challenges and  
789 prospects. *Asia Pac J Hum Resou.* 2018; 56(4): 429-432.

790 Costello AB, Osborne J. Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: four recommendations  
791 for getting the most from your analysis. *Prac Asses Res Eval.* 2005; 10(7): 1-9.

792 Dao Dinh N, Zhang K, Huyen NT. The gender wage gap and the presence of foreign firms in  
793 Vietnam: evidence from unconditional quantile regression decomposition. *J Econ*  
794 *Stud.* 2021; 49(3): 489-505.

795 De Vaus D. *Surveys in Social Research*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge. 2014.

796 Demombynes G, Testaverde M. Employment structure and returns to skill in Vietnam:  
797 estimates using the labor force survey - Policy Research Working Paper Series 8364.  
798 World Bank. 2018.

799 Diemer MA, Wang Q, Moore T, Gregory SR, Hatcher KM, Voight AM. Sociopolitical  
800 Development, Work Salience, and Vocational Expectations Among Low  
801 Socioeconomic Status African American, Latin American, and Asian American  
802 Youth. *Dev Psychol.* 2010; 46(3): 619-635.

803 DiPrete TA, Nonnemaker KL. Structural change, labor market turbulence, and labor market  
804 outcomes. *Am Sociol Rev.* 1997; 62(3): 386-404.

805 Doanh-Ngan-Mac D, Linh-Khanh H, Cuong-Minh L, Trung T. A Human Rights-Based  
806 Approach in Implementing Sustainable Development Goal 4 (Quality Education) for  
807 Ethnic Minorities in Vietnam. *Sustainability.* 2020; 12(10): 1-18.

808 Duffy RD, Blustein DL, Allan BA, Diemer MA, Cinamon RG. Introduction to the special  
809 issue: A cross-cultural exploration of decent work. *J Vocat Behav.* 2020a;  
810 116(103351): 1-18.

811 Duffy RD, Blustein DL, Diemer MA, Autin KL. The Psychology of Working Theory. *J*  
812 *Counsel Psychol.* 2016; 63(2): 127-148.

813 Duffy RD, Kim HJ, Allan BA, Prieto CG. Predictors of decent work across time: Testing  
814 propositions from Psychology of Working Theory. *J Vocat Behav.* 2020b;  
815 123(103507). doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103507.

816 Feldman DC, Ng TWH. Careers: Mobility, embeddedness, and success. *J Manage.* 2007;  
817 33(3): 350-377.

818 Fervers L. Healing or Deepening the Scars of Unemployment? The Impact of Activation  
819 Policies on Unemployed Workers. *Work Employ Soc.* 2021; 35(1): 3-20.

820 Field A. *Discovering Statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics.* New York: Sage. 2018.

821 Flores LY, Settles I, McGillen GG, Davis TM. Critical contributions to scholarship on  
822 women and work: Celebrating 50 years of progress and looking ahead to a new  
823 decade. *J Vocat Behav.* 2021; 126(103490). doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103490.

824 Freire P. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed.* New York: Continuum. 2000.

825 Haikkola L. Classed and gendered transitions in youth activation: the case of Finnish youth  
826 employment services. *J Youth Stud.* 2021; 24(2): 250-266.

827 Herod A. *Labor Geographies.* New York: Guilford. 2001.

828 Jackson D, Bridgstock R. What actually works to enhance graduate employability? The  
829 relative value of curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular learning and paid work.  
830 *High Educ.* 2021; 81(4): 723-739.

831 Jackson S, Tomlinson M. Investigating the relationship between career planning, proactivity  
832 and employability perceptions among higher education students in uncertain labour  
833 market conditions. *High Educ.* 2020; 80(3): 435-455.

834 Jackson D, Tomlinson M. The relative importance of work experience, extra-curricular and  
835 university-based activities on student employability. *High Educ Res Dev.* 2021; 41(4):  
836 1119-1135.

837 Jeyacheya J, Hampton MP. Wishful thinking or wise policy? Theorising tourism-led  
838 inclusive growth: Supply chains and host communities. *World Dev.* 2020;  
839 131(104960). doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.104960.



840 Jiang WY. Sustaining Meaningful Work in a Crisis: Adopting and Conveying a Situational  
841 Purpose. *Admin Sci Quart.* 2021; 66(3): 806-853.

842 Kalleberg AL. *Precarious Lives.* Cambridge, MA: Polity. 2018.

843 Kalleberg AL, Vallas SP. *Precarious Work.* Bingley: Emerald. 2017.

844 Khan AA. Embodied circular migration: lived experiences of education and work of  
845 Nepalese children and youth. *J Youth Stud.* 2021; 25(4): 470-486.

846 Kline RB. *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling.* New York: Guilford.  
847 2016.

848 Kossek EE, Perrigino M, Rock AG. From ideal workers to ideal work for all: A 50-year  
849 review integrating careers and work-family research with a future research agenda. *J*  
850 *Vocat Behav.* 2021; 126(103504). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103504>.

851 Lanvin B, Monteiro F. *The Global Talent Competitiveness Index 2020.* Fontainebleau:  
852 INSEAD. 2020.

853 Le-Minh N, Thi KL, Hai-Yen H, Hai-Binh N. Experiences of Housing Adapted to Sea Level  
854 Rise and Applicability for Houses in the Can Gio District, Ho Chi Minh City,  
855 Vietnam. *Sustainability.* 2020; 12(9): 1-14.

856 Lindberg O, Rantatalo O. Competence in professional practice: A practice theory analysis of  
857 police and doctors. *Hum Relat.* 2015; 68(4), 561-582.

858 Liu D, Wu Y, Jiang F, Wang M, Liu Y, Tang Y-L. Gender Differences in Job Satisfaction  
859 and Work-Life Balance Among Chinese Physicians in Tertiary Public Hospitals.  
860 *Front Pub Health.* 2021; 9: 1-8.

861 Maiorano D, Shrimankar D, Thapar-Bjorkert S, Blomkvist H. Measuring empowerment:  
862 Choices, values and norms. *World Dev.* 2021; 138(105220).  
863 doi:[10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.105220](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.105220).

864 Maitah K, Smutka L, Sahatqija J, Maitah M, Phuong Anh P. Rice as a Determinant of  
865 Vietnamese Economic Sustainability. *Sustainability*. 2020; 12(12).  
866 doi:10.3390/su12125123.

867 Masdonati J, Massoudi K, Blustein DI, Duffy RD. Moving Toward Decent Work:  
868 Application of the Psychology of Working Theory to the School-to-Work Transition.  
869 *J Career Dev*. 2021; 49(1): 41–59.

870 Massey DB. *Spatial Divisions of Labor*. New York: Routledge. 1995.

871 McGuinness S, Kelly E, Thu PPT, Thu THT, Whelan A. Returns to education in Vietnam: A  
872 changing landscape. *World Dev*. 2021; 138(105205).  
873 doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.105205

874 McWhirter EH, McWhirter BT. Critical Consciousness and Vocational Development Among  
875 Latina/o High School Youth: Initial Development and Testing of a Measure. *J Career*  
876 *Assessment*. 2016; 24(3): 543-558.

877 McWhirter EH, McWha-Hermann I. Social justice and career development: Progress,  
878 problems, and possibilities. *J Vocat Behav*. 2021; 126(103492).  
879 doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103492>

880 Metcalfe BD, Makarem Y, Afiouni F. Macro talent management theorizing: transnational  
881 perspectives of the political economy of talent formation in the Arab Middle East. *Int*  
882 *J Hum Resour Man*. 2020; 32(1): 147-182.

883 Midtboen AH. The context of employment discrimination: interpreting the findings of a field  
884 experiment. *Brit J Sociol*. 2015; 66(1): 193-214.

885 Okay-Somerville B, Allison I, Luchinskaya D, Scholarios D. Disentangling the impact of  
886 social disadvantage on 'becoming employable': evidence from STEM student  
887 university-to-work transitions. *Stud High Educ*. 2020; 47(3): 545-559.

888 Pedulla DS. Penalized or Protected? Gender and the Consequences of Nonstandard and  
889 Mismatched Employment Histories. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2016; 81(2): 262-289.

890 Pedulla DS. How Race and Unemployment Shape Labor Market Opportunities: Additive,  
891 Amplified, or Muted Effects? *Soc Forces.* 2018; 96(4): 1477-1506.

892 Pedulla DS, Pager D. Race and Networks in the Job Search Process. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2019;  
893 84(6): 983-1012.

894 Pettit J. *Power Analysis.* Stockholm: Swedish International Development Agency. 2013.

895 Pham ATQ, Mukhopadhaya P, Vu H. Targeting Administrative Regions for  
896 Multidimensional Poverty Alleviation: A Study on Vietnam. *Soc Indic Res.* 2020;  
897 150(1): 143-189.

898 Potter M, Hamilton J. Picking on vulnerable migrants: Precarity and the mushroom industry  
899 in Northern Ireland. *Work Employ Soc.* 2014; 28(3), 390-406.

900 Ray V. A Theory of Racialized Organizations. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2019; 84(1), 26-53.

901 Read JG, Oselin S. Gender and the education-employment paradox in ethnic and religious  
902 contexts: The case of Arab Americans. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2008; 73(2): 296-313.

903 Restifo SJ, Roscigno VJ, Qian Z. Segmented Assimilation, Split Labor Markets, and  
904 Racial/Ethnic Inequality: The Case of Early-Twentieth-Century New York. *Am*  
905 *Sociol Rev.* 2013; 78(5): 897-924.

906 Rowlands J. *Questioning Empowerment.* Warwickshire: Oxfam. 1997.

907 Sarstedt M, Hair JF, Ringle CM, Thiele KO, Gudergan SP. Estimation issues with PLS and  
908 CBSEM: Where the bias lies. *J Bus Res.* 2016; 69(10): 3998-4010.

909 Saxena M. Cultural skills as drivers of decency in decent work: an investigation of skilled  
910 workers in the informal economy. *Eur J Work Organ Psy.* 2021; 30(6): 824-836.

911 Scandurra R, Cefalo R, Kazepov Y. Drivers of Youth Labour Market Integration Across  
912 European Regions. *Soc Indic Res.* 2021; 154(3): 835-856.

913 Schermelleh-Engel K, Moosbrugger H, Müller H. Evaluating the Fit of Structural Equation  
914 Models: Tests of Significance and Descriptive Goodness-of-Fit Measures. *Method*  
915 *Psy Res.* 2003; 8(2): 23-74.

916 Schull D, King E, Hamood W, Feakes A. 'Context' matters: factors considered by employers  
917 when selecting new graduate veterinarians. *High Educ Res Dev.* 2021; 40(2): 386-  
918 399.

919 Simelton E, Duong TM, Houzer E. When the "Strong Arms" Leave the Farms-Migration,  
920 Gender Roles and Risk Reduction in Vietnam. *Sustainability.* 2021; 13(7): 4081 (1-  
921 30).

922 Sirola N. Individuals' Responses to Economic Cycles: Organizational Relevance and a  
923 Multilevel Theoretical Integration. *Acad Manage Anna.* 2020; 14(2), 451-473.

924 Suttawet C, Bamber GJ. International labour standards and decent work: a critical analysis of  
925 Thailand's experiences, with suggestions for theory, policy, practice and research.  
926 *Asia Pac J Hum Resou.* 2018; 56(4): 539-565.

927 Sutton A, Bosky A, Muller C. Manufacturing Gender Inequality in the New Economy: High  
928 School Training for Work in Blue-Collar Communities. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2016; 81(4):  
929 720-748.

930 Thakkar JJ. *Structural Equation Modelling.* Singapore: Springer. 2020.

931 IPCC. *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis.* Geneva, Switzerland:  
932 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2021.

933 Thijssen JGL, Van der Heijden BIJM, Rocco TS. Toward the employability—link model:  
934 current employment transition to future employment perspectives. *Hum Resour Dev*  
935 *Rev.* 2008; 7(2): 165-183.

936 Thomas H, Turnbull P. From horizontal to vertical labour governance: The International  
937 Labour Organization (ILO) and decent work in global supply chains. *Hum Relat.*  
938 2018; 71(4): 536-559.

939 Tomlinson M. Employers and Universities: Conceptual Dimensions, Research Evidence and  
940 Implications. *High Educ Policy.* 2021; 34(1): 132-154.

941 Tran LT, Bui H. International graduate returnees' accumulation of capitals and (re)positioning  
942 in the home labour market in Vietnam: the explorer, the advancer or the adventurer? *J*  
943 *Educ Work.* 2021; 34(4): 544-557.

944 Tran TT. Youth transition to employment in Vietnam: A vulnerable path. *J Educ Work.* 2018;  
945 31(1): 59-71.

946 UNDESA. World Economic Situation And Prospects. New York City, New York: United  
947 Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2019.

948 van Tubergen F, Maas I, Flap H. The economic incorporation of immigrants in 18 western  
949 societies: Origin, destination, and community effects. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2004; 69(5):  
950 704-727.

951 Van Vu H, Tran TQ, Nguyen TV, Lim S. Corruption, Types of Corruption and Firm  
952 Financial Performance: New Evidence from a Transitional Economy. *J Bus Ethics.*  
953 2018; 148(4): 847-858.

954 VeneKlasen L, Miller V. A New Weave of Power, People & Politics. Rugby: Practical  
955 Action. 2007.

956 VietnamNet. Unemployment, inequality plague ethnic minorities. (4<sup>th</sup> August 2022). Hanoi,  
957 Vietnam: VietnamNet. ([https://vietnamnet.vn/en/society/unemployment-inequality-](https://vietnamnet.vn/en/society/unemployment-inequality-plague-ethnic-minorities-584439.html)  
958 [plague-ethnic-minorities-584439.html](https://vietnamnet.vn/en/society/unemployment-inequality-plague-ethnic-minorities-584439.html)). 2019.

959 Welch C, Piekkari R. Crossing Language Boundaries: Qualitative Interviewing in  
960 International Business. *Manag Int Rev.* 2006; 46(4): 417-437.

961 World Bank. The World Bank In Vietnam. (4<sup>th</sup> August 2022). Hanoi, Vietnam: World Bank.  
962 (<https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/vietnam/overview#1>). 2021a.

963 World Bank. Shared Gains: How High Growth and Anti-Poverty Programs Reduced Poverty  
964 in Vietnam - Vietnam Poverty and Shared Prosperity Update Report. Hanoi, Vietnam:  
965 World Bank. 2021b.

966 Zhang MF, Dawson JF, Kline RB. Evaluating the Use of Covariance-Based Structural  
967 Equation Modelling with Reflective Measurement in Organizational and Management  
968 Research: A Review and Recommendations for Best Practice. *Brit J Manage.* 2021;  
969 32(2): 257-272.

970 Zwysen W, Stasio VD, Heath A. Ethnic Penalties and Hiring Discrimination: Comparing  
971 Results from Observational Studies with Field Experiments in the UK. *Sociology.*  
972 2021; 55(2): 263-282.